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ABSTRACT

Professional social work developed and evolved in the United States, although the traditions and notions about poverty were derived from England's experience and the Elizabethan Poor Law of 1601. The first higher education program for social work in the United States was established in 1898. In Australia, the profession of social work took a course parallel to that of the United States. This study examined and compared social work qualifications and salaries of Australian and American social workers to determine if a significant difference exists between social workers in the two countries. The annual membership questionnaire of the National Association of Social Workers (NASW), with minor changes, was used for survey research in Australia. Data from Australian social workers (N=340) were compared to membership data from American social workers (N=26,338). The results showed a statistically significant difference between salaries for Bachelor of Social Work level social workers in Australia and the United States, with Australians earning more. The salary differences between the Master of Social Work and Doctor of Social Work levels, however, were not statistically significant. (ABL)

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A DESCRIPTIVE AND COMPARATIVE STUDY OF QUALIFICATIONS AND SALARIES OF AUSTRALIAN AND AMERICAN SOCIAL WORKERS

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A THESIS

Presented to the Department of Social Work

California State University, Long Beach

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Social Work

By Nancy L. West

BA, 1981, California State University, Long Beach

BA, 1973, California State University, Long Beach

August 1989

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ABSTRACT

A DESCRIPTIVE AND COMPARATIVE STUDY OF
QUALIFICATIONS AND SALARIES OF
AUSTRALIAN AND AMERICAN
SOCIAL WORKERS

By

Nancy L. West

August 1989

The purpose of this study was to research and compare social work qualifications and salaries on an international level. It utilized Australian and American social workers to determine if a significant difference existed between social workers in both countries.

The National Association of Social Workers (NASW) annual membership questionnaire, with minor changes, was used for a survey research study conducted in Australia. Questionnaires were sent to a sample of 558 members of the Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW). The study surveyed 9 out of 10 members in Western Australia and 1 out of 3 in Victoria. Data for comparison with American social workers had been collected by NASW.

This study showed a statistically significant difference ($p = < .01$) between salaries for BSW level

social workers in Australia and the United States, with Australians earning more. The differences between the MSW and DSW/PhD levels, however, were not statistically significant.

WE, THE UNDERSIGNED MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE,

HAVE APPROVED THIS THESIS

A DESCRIPTIVE AND COMPARATIVE STUDY OF

QUALIFICATIONS AND SALARIES OF

AUSTRALIAN AND AMERICAN

SOCIAL WORKERS

by

Nancy L. West

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Professional social work developed and evolved in the United States, although the traditions and notions about poverty, the three categories of poor--almshouses, poor relief, and benevolent giving--were derived from England's experience and the Elizabethan Poor Law of 1601 (Richan 1988, p. 37). In the years prior to the development of social work, the church, charitable organizations, neighbors, and the family assisted those in need, until the need became too great.

Viewed as the progenitors of modern social work methods, the Charity Organization Society (COS) and the first Settlement Houses established in America in the mid-1880s were modeled after the London Society for Organizing Charitable Relief and Repressing Mendicancy of 1869 (Lubove 1965, p. 2) and London's Toynbee Hall, which was established in 1884 (Roberts and Northen 1976, p. 3). The social and environmental conditions of the times created a need to provide advanced social work training, skills and techniques. Therefore, the first higher education program for social work was established in the United States in 1898 by the New York COS.

Early social workers developed a knowledge base for their particular fields of specialization with casework, group work and community organization emerging on parallel courses (Roberts and Northen 1976, p. xii).

Social workers formed their first professional organization in 1918 with the American Association of Hospital Social Workers (Lubove 1965, p. 125; Roberts and Northen 1976, p. 10). Later, the American Association of Social Work was established in 1921 to promote training and ethical standards, the public awareness of social work and for the development of a group identity (Lubove 1965, p. 131). Social work became recognized as a profession in the 1930s (Richan 1988, p. 174). According to Greenwood (as cited in Compton and Galaway 1979, p. 505; Gilbert and Specht 1981, p. 303, and 1986, p. 138; Profession of Social Work 1987, p. 351), the profession of social work, like other professions, has a common knowledge base, authority, community sanction, ethical codes and a professional culture. The knowledge base is built upon testable theory, while the authority stems from the ability to utilize the knowledge and translate it into practice. The community at large recognizes the knowledge base and profession of social work. The community and professional organization provide sanction and a professional culture. In 1955, seven specialized fields of social work united to form the National Association of

Social Workers. The National Association of Social Workers (NASW) provides a subculture, sanctions the profession and governs practice behavior with a code of ethics (Richan 1988, p. 174).

Early social work curricula generally emphasized social casework (Profession of Social Work 1987, p. 363) and techniques, rather than theory and "the development of a broad, scientific training" (Lubove 1965, p. 143). The development of social work, from its meager beginnings to association and organization to professionalization and beyond, has been shaped by "pioneers" in social work and in other fields. The direction of the methods, skills and practice of social work which are utilized today are based on the experience and practice of the pioneers and those who have followed them. A broad, scientific training is required for American social work programs approved by the accrediting body of social work schools, the Council on Social Work Education, and NASW.

In Australia, the profession of social work has taken a parallel course to that in America; however, "social work is a poorly developed profession in Australia" (Jones 1980, p. 289). Social workers are not usually involved in planning or administration and, when surveyed along with 15 other professions in 1976 by Hickie, were found to be the most poorly paid (as cited in Jones 1980, p. 289). Among other reasons for the slow development of social

work, Jones describes a major values struggle within the profession in the 1970s which resulted in the Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW) splitting into the AASW and the Australian Social Welfare Union (Jones 1980, p. 289). As social work has developed to a high and elaborate level, Australia has taken America's and Britain's lead by importing educational programs that seem appropriate for them and modifying the curricula to suit their needs.

Currently, there is considerable consternation and discontent among social workers in America regarding the salaries they receive for their services. In a recent report by NASW, Salaries in Social Work (NASW 1987), it was found that the mean annual salaries of 26,034 members was $27,800, with means ranging between $21,800 for those who work in nursing homes and hospices to $32,300 for social work educators at the college or university level.

As in the early development of social work, women continue to provide a majority of the social work services in America. It is disheartening to find, according to Salaries in Social Work (NASW 1987), that there continues to be a gender gap in America, with male social workers earning 30.5% more than their female counterparts when both have the equivalent educational credentials and qualifications. As a partial explanation for this inequity, NASW contends that women may be employed on a

part-time basis more often, which could explain higher salaries for males (NASW 1987, p. 2).

Statement of Problem

The notion for this study was the researcher's interest in exploring the Australian system of social welfare, including the social work profession. This interest stems from observation of and temporary employment within the system in an extended visit to Western Australia several years ago.

This research examined whether social workers in America receive salaries which are commensurate with social workers in Australia when both hold equivalent degrees and have comparable experience.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to research and compare social worker qualifications and salaries on an international level. To accomplish this, the researcher compared the social work profession in American with that in Australia. The history of social welfare in Australia, the existing social welfare system, and the condition of social work in Australia are presented in the literature review. Utilizing a questionnaire, data on the salaries, qualifications for the practice of social work, fields of practice, social work education and possible gender inequities for social workers in Australia were collected.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

This chapter presents a review of the literature in six areas relating to the focus of this comparative and descriptive study: (a) a very brief discussion of the beginning of social welfare and the social work "profession" in the United States and England; (b) a brief history of Australia and a description of Australia as it is today; (c) a discussion of the history of social welfare in Australia; (d) a description of the current social welfare system; (e) a brief review of the current status of the social work profession in Australia; and (f) a brief look at social work education in Australia.

Benevolent Beginnings

Professional social work evolved in the United States from the early Settlement House and Charity Organization Society (COS) movements, which originated and developed an extensive relief network in England in the 1860s (Woodroofe 1966, p. 3). This network was based on the previous work and experiences of many who had organized efforts in Europe and the United States (Woodroofe 1962, pp. 2-3). Thomas Chalmers in Glasgow (1820s), the St. Vincent de Paul Society in France (1833), the New York

Association for Improving the Conditions of the Poor (1843), and the Elberfeld experiment in Germany (1853) represented principles that would, in the years to come, serve as models for the development of organized charitable relief and guidelines for "friendly visiting" (Lubove 1965, pp. 2-4; Woodroofe 1962, pp. 44-49). Personal services to the poor were championed by Octavia Hill with friendly rent collecting (1864), and Edward Denison's move to a London slum (1867) to gain an understanding of poverty (Lubove 1965, p. 4).

In England, the Charity Organization Society (COS) movement originated with the first meeting of the London Society for Organizing Charitable Relief and Repressing Mendicity in March 1870, which was an effort to coordinate various charities and offer guidelines for almsgiving (Woodroofe 1962, p. 24). Charles Loch was appointed Secretary of the London COS in 1875 and spent the next 38 years promoting the virtues and principles of the COS movement as a means for relief for the poor and reducing unnecessary costs (Woodroofe 1962, pp. 28-32).

The first COS in America was patterned after the London COS (Lubove 1965, p. 5) and established in Buffalo in 1877 after it was suggested by Sir S. Humphreys Gurteen, an English Episcopal clergyman, as a means of organizing Buffalo's "benevolent chaos" (Lubove 1965, p. 2). The COS movement emphasized the use of

"investigation, registration, cooperation and coordination, 'adequate' relief, and friendly visiting" (Lubove 1965, p. 1) to determine who was or was not deserving of help.

The first Settlement Houses in the United States were the Hudson Guild and the Neighborhood Guild, both in New York City, established in 1876 and 1877, respectively, and modeled after London's Toynbee Hall of 1884 (Roberts and Northen 1976, p.3). For American social workers, Jane Addams and Hull House in Chicago (1889) are probably the most recognized as catalysts for a nationwide settlement house movement (Roberts and Northen 1976, p. 3) established to manage the masses of people flooding into the cities and slums (Richan 1988, p. 202).

Social and economic conditions of the times (i.e., waves of immigrants, poverty, industrialization, the economic crisis of the 1870s) created a need for volunteers and friendly helpers to rescue those in need (Lubove 1965, p. 2). Many of those who served as friendly visitors and settlement workers never received training on what they needed to do but were expected to "do what comes naturally" (Roberts and Northen 1976, p. 2).

The thrust for apprenticeship and training programs, in both Britain and America, resulted in the push for more advanced training to teach scientific methods for settlement workers and friendly visitors. In Britain, Octavia

Hill was the inspiration behind the establishment of a training program for housing managers and rent collectors in Southwark in the 1890s.

In the United States, Mary Richmond provided the motivation behind the first advanced social work education because of her discontent with the existing apprenticeship programs. This advanced educational program was a six-week training course, the Summer School in Philanthropy, which was established in association with the New York COS in 1898 (Lubove 1965, p. 140). This training course became known as the New York School of Philanthropy and expanded to a one-year program in 1904 and a two-year course in 1910 (Lubove 1965, p. 140). Later, it became the Columbia University School of Social Work. Other urban area COS's also developed advanced training courses during the next two decades, which separated from the COS auspices and became schools within universities. The Institute of Social Sciences, associated with the University of Chicago was established in 1903 and the Boston School for Social Workers developed with Harvard University and Simmons College that same year. Philadelphia, St. Louis, Cleveland, Richmond, and Houston established advanced social work education courses, associated with universities, within the next 15 years (Lubove 1965, p. 140-141).

The Founding and Early History of Australia

The Convict Years to Federation: 1788-1901

Situated in the southern hemisphere, Australia is an island continent in Oceania. It is roughly the size of the continental United States, excluding Alaska and Hawaii (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 7). The Aboriginal, the native Australians, are thought to have come to Australia 24,000 to 30,000 years ago from Asia. The first Englishman to find the lush, habitable east coast of Australia was Captain James Cook in 1770. Others (Asians, Portuguese, Spanish, Dutch, and the English) had explored the coasts and inland waterways of the continent in the 200 years before but found those areas to be inhospitable (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, pp. 30-31).

Seventeen years after Captain James Cook found the east coast of Australia, Britain envisioned a "gaol [jail] of infinite space" (Hughes 1986, p. 596). The Transportation Act of 1784 authorized that convicts be exiled to places, other than America, for their crimes. This policy was an extension of the forced exile of 40,000 criminals to America which had existed from 1611 until 1776. As Britain lacked any real penitentiary system, continued transportation would remove criminals who were

incarcerated in overcrowded jails and on hulks in the harbor (Hughes 1986, p. 62).

In May 1787, the English sent a fleet of 11 ships, the First Fleet, under Captain Arthur Phillip to Australia to found a penal colony which was to become Botany Bay and, the more habitable, Port Jackson (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 31). Upon landing in Australia in January 1788, Captain Phillip was appointed Governor and Captain General of the colony (Dickey 1980, p. 1).

According to Hartz, England's "legal order did not pose an effective deterrent to crime, while the economic order seemed to make it necessary" (1964, p. 278). Many of the early deportee convicts from England were sent into exile for seven years for minor crimes, some prompted by the economic conditions and industrial revolution occurring at the time. Contemporary thought believed that the removal of the criminal element from London society would decrease crime in Britain (Hughes 1986, p. 582).

The population of Australia grew from the original 1,030 people, which included 726 convicts, in 1788, to more than 60,000 in 1833 (38% convict). By 1850, the population increased to approximately 405,000 free and convict people (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 33; Dickey 1980, p. 30). These increases were a result of both natural increase and immigration. With a

gold find in New South Wales in 1851, followed by finds in Victoria, the population more than doubled by 1860 and increased to about 1,646,000 by 1870 (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 33). Convicts and ex-convicts represented about 15% of the total white population by 1861 (Jones 1980, p. 6). The Aboriginal population numbers decreased during the colonial period through the 1930s to their lowest point of 67,000 in 1933 (Population 1979, p. 67).

Australia remained a penal colony for deportee convicts from England until transportation was abolished in New South Wales in 1840, 1853 in Tasmania (Van Diemen's Land), and 1868 in isolated Western Australia. Convicts already in the colonies when transportation ended served out their sentences. Western Australia's last convicts completed their sentences in 1886 (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 35). During the years of transportation, assigned convicts provided Australia with "slave labor" for colonial development. Actually, slave labor was a misnomer, as the assigned convicts were given their tickets-of-leave after they had completed their sentences and became free to labor for themselves (Hughes 1986, p. 283). However, Hartz maintains that "the convict chapter in Australian history was written by a group of paupers, political prisoners, and genuine criminals" (1964, p. 280). Convicts and those emancipated formed the

necessary foundation and manpower for the settlement of Australia and, later, were able to help shape the social and political systems which developed. The majority of convicts became responsible citizens when they received their tickets-of-leave and set about to establish themselves in the community. According to Jones, "transportation was a successful social programme, probably one of the most effective examples on record" (1980, p. 7).

As colonies of the British Crown, the early political system was that of a military autocracy with rule by force (Hughes 1986, p. 293). Britain had given little thought to the organization and management of the new colony located so far away from the mother country. Shortly after landing at Botany Bay, Governor Phillip found himself short of resources and instructions (Dickey 1980, p. 1) for the establishment and development of the new colony. Phillip and the succeeding governors of Botany Bay and Norfolk Island in New South Wales and Van Dieman's Land, founded in 1798 and settled in 1803 (Castles 1978, p. 7), exercised total authority over the convicts, the garrison, their families, and the growing free population. Queensland and Victoria were founded in 1824, Western Australia in 1829, South Australia in 1836, and the Northern Territory in 1863 (Castles 1978, pp. 11-23).

New South Wales was the first colony to be granted a constitutional charter by the British government in 1823

and became self-governing by legislative councils with "limited legislative responsibility" (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 34). Tasmania (Van Dieman's Land), previously tied to New South Wales, separated its administration and followed with its own constitution two years later. Self-government had become a necessity for the colonies due to their isolation from Britain and from each other. The legislative councils were "responsible for the management of local affairs within their boundaries" (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 75). In 1838 and 1842, respectively, Western and South Australia were granted charters to establish government by council. The British government extended the powers of the New South Wales council in 1842 and permitted elections of two-thirds of the council members by "restricted franchise" (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 34).

The British further expanded the powers of the Colonial government in The Australian Colonies Government Act of 1850 (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 34). This Act granted Victoria its own charter in 1851, separating it from the New South Wales government administration. It also granted powers to the colonies "sufficient to make the development of responsible government inevitable" (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 34). Patterned after the British system

of government, the eastern colonies, including the newly created Queensland, formulated new constitutions which were approved by the British Parliament between 1855 and 1859. Western Australia established an advanced Legislative Council system in 1870 and its constitution was not ratified until 1890. This delay was because Western Australia continued to function as a penal colony with assigned convicts serving out their sentences through 1886 (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 35).

The colonies of New South Wales, Tasmania, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, and Western Australia became the Commonwealth of Australia on January 1, 1901 after the Commonwealth Bill passed both houses of the Imperial Parliament, and a proclamation was delivered by Queen Victoria. The new Commonwealth constitution also established a federal territory for the future site of the capital. In 1911, the Australian Capital Territory was selected as the seat of the federal government with Canberra as its capital (Australian News and Information Bureau 1970, p. 35). According to Roe,

> Australia was not a new society, it was a planned extension of an older society--it was dependent on that society as far as its economic survival, military defense and its cultural life were concerned. (1976, p. 25).

Australia Today

The land area of Australia ranks sixth in world size (World in Figures 1988, p. 12) and forty-eighth in world population with an estimated 1985 population of 15,752,000 people (World in Figures 1988, p. 8). The native Australians, the Aboriginals, who reached their lowest population of 67,000 in 1933, had increased their numbers to 158,897 by 1981 (Castles 1986, p. 103) and continue to grow at twice the rate of the rest of the Australian population (Population 1979, p. 67).

People of English, Scottish and Irish descent comprised 96% of the total Australian population in 1966 with almost 81.6% born in Australia. In 1984, almost 78.9% of the total population was born in Australia (Castles 1986, p. 101). Australian residents from the United Kingdom and Ireland still constitute 7.7%, and all other countries constitute 13.4% of the overseas-born. Some of the other locations of birth include: Italy, Asia and the Middle East, New Zealand, Yugoslavia, Greece, Germany, Africa, America, and the Netherlands in order of number of immigrants to Australia (Castles 1986, p. 102).

"For historical, climatic and economic reasons the population of Australia is concentrated in capital cities and other major cities, mainly on the south and east coasts of the continent" (Castles 1986, p. 97). In 1971, 64.49% of the Australian population lived in major urban

areas (Population 1979, p. 64). Based on the 1984 Australian Census results, the percentage of the total population in each state or territory is as follows: New South Wales 34.79%, Victoria 26.22%, Queensland 16.12%, South Australia 8.70%, Western Australia 8.90%, Tasmania 2.81%, Northern Territory .99%, and the Australian Capital Territory 1.57% (Castles 1986, p. 100). In 1984, the estimated median age of Australian residents was 30.5 years old. The estimated proportions of the populations age groups show a young population with the median age rising each year. In 1984, 24% of the population was under 15 years of age, 46.8% were between the ages of 15 and 44 years, 19.1% were between 45 and 64, and 10.1% were 65 years and older (Castles 1986, p. 100).

Australia has had a parliamentary monarchy political system since it became independent from Great Britain in 1901 (World in Figures 1988, p. 272). Australia has a bicameral system of government. The Federal Parliament consists of the Governor-General, who represents the British Crown; the prime minister, who represents the nation; the Senate, with 10 senators from each state and territory; and the House of Representatives, with representation based on population. The Prime Minister and Senate and House members are elected officials. The Governor-General is appointed by the Prime Minister and Cabinet. Cabinet members are departmental heads appointed

by the Prime Minister. If the government becomes unworkable, the Governor-General has the power to dissolve parliament and order a new election. This last occurred in 1974. The major political parties are the Liberal Party and the Labour Party. The Liberals lean toward big business and tend to be more conservative, while the Labour Party is worker oriented and, historically, has provided more social programs for the Australian people (Howard 1989).

Australia has a mixed industrial economy, with agricultural, mining, and manufacturing sectors (World in Figures 1988, p. 272). Coal, metal ores, cereals, wool, crude oil, non-ferrous metals, and beef are the primary goods exported from Australia. The main goods imported include: machinery, motor vehicles, chemicals, and textiles. The majority of the labour force in 1985 was concentrated in manufacturing, distribution and hotels, and other services (which includes social work) (World in Figures 1988, p. 274).

In the 1984/1985 budget, Australia spent 28% of its budget on social security and welfare, 10% on health care, and 7% on educational services (World in Figures 1988, p. 274).

The national income per person in 1985 was (Australian dollars) A$13,123 = (United States dollars) $9,196 with the exchange rate at A$1.42 = $1.00 (World in

Figures 1988, p. 272). The Weekend Australian states that the current average weekly wage for the adult male is A$557.90 (March 11-12, 1989, p. 39). According to the Los Angeles Times, the current rate of exchange is A$1.24 = $1.00 (April 11, 1989, Part IV, p. 10). With fluctuating exchange rates, it costs between $.80 and $.87 to purchase A$1.00.

Howard (1989) relates that the cost of living in Australia, based on the percentage of income needed for the purchase of necessities, services and goods is approximately:

housing	25%-33%
food	15%-20%
utilities	5%-10%
automobile	8%-15%
insurance (auto and home)	1%-5%
health care	1%-3% (tax)
entertainment	3%-5%
clothing, shoes	5%-8%
federal tax withholding	24%-60% (based on income)

Maher reports that in 1976, the percentage of home owners in the capital cities of Australia ranged between 65.1% for Sydney and, the highest, 70.1% in Adelaide (1982, p. 73).

History of Social Welfare in Australia

The Convict Years to Federation: 1788-1901

Social welfare in Australia started shortly after landfall on Australia and its founding as a colony in 1788. According to Dickey, "the British government held responsibility for its charges during the first two generations of white settlement in Australia" (1980, p. 29). The jail scheme from Britain had not made plans for the time it would take to forge a self-supporting colony from the natural resources available at landfall. From the very beginning, Governor-General Phillip and his successors, under orders from Britain, accepted total responsibility and provided for the needs of the convicts, the garrison, and the free. According to Dickey, "Governor Phillip found himself feeding everyone from government rations for most of the first few years" (1980, p. 19). No provisions had been made for the insane, the Aboriginal, the education of children, or care of orphans and the poor. During the early years, there was no such thing as the deserving poor, no one could care for himself. The British and colonial governments exercised total responsibility for its people in all respects: in work, in sickness, and in old age (Dickey 1980, p. 29). It was not until 1810 that some of the people were able to care for themselves (Dickey 1980, p. 19).

The British government provided financial support for the colonies until the 1840s, when the two colonies, New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, were forced to accept responsibility for those unable to care for themselves. Services established in one colony soon expanded to the other and then to outer settlements in the growing country.

Care for the sick, convict or free, was provided as an element of the jail scheme and first organized in tents shortly after landfall in Australia (Dickey 1980, p. 2). A public hospital was soon built and supported by "British resources as [part of] the military and civil organization" (Dickey 1980, p. 2). As the colonies grew and expanded, it soon became necessary to set up medical facilities in those areas, too. The government provided medical care to all who needed it, regardless of their direct responsibility. According to Dickey, employers were expected to reimburse the government for convict medical care but probably never did (1980, p. 3). As early as 1810, those settlers who could afford it paid for their own medical care at home to avoid the public hospitals.

The insane or "lunatics" were first confined to town jails to protect the rest of the population. A custodial asylum for "lunatics" was established in New South Wales in 1811 and a larger hospital was built for them in 1838.

The colonial government accepted their responsibility to protect the people from this population when Britain withdrew its financial support in the 1840s. The services were minimal and no effort was made to treat the insane (Dickey 1980, p. 6-8).

From the earliest British directive, Governor Phillip and his successors were to "promote Religion and Education among the Native Inhabitants" (Dickey 1980, p. 10). They implemented a variety of efforts to civilize the Aboriginal with education and Christian learning over the next 60 years. All efforts failed because the Aboriginal was expected to become a working, producing unit of the colony. The pastoral nomadic life and world of the Aboriginal was inconsistent with a settled life and not considered by the government and colonists when they encroached upon the Aboriginal sacred lands and way of life. The settlers in Australia, in effect, did to the Aboriginal what American settlers did to the American Indian--took away their lands, their way of life, their spirit and many of their lives.

The task of educating the children was initially assigned to the Anglican clergy, set forth in instructions from the British government, to put aside land for the clergy and a schoolmaster. No school teachers arrived with the First Fleet. Education and its establishment took a back seat to other priorities in the colony.

School teachers were recruited from the educated convicts and other settlers. By 1806 eight teachers were employed by the government to provide minimal instruction for the children of the working class (Dickey 1980, p. 15). In 1808 the educational scheme was abandoned when Governor William Bligh was deposed by a rebel military government. Major Johnston took power for six months and was more interested in free enterprise, so refused to spend money for educating the children of the poor (Castles 1978, p. 8). Major Johnston's unit, the New South Wales Corps, became known as the Rum Corps after a lucrative trade accumulated huge profits and a monopoly in all trading activities of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land. They established early control of New South Wales and the colonial government was ineffectual at regulating their activities (Hughes 1986, p. 110).

The colonial government was returned to power but questions about the responsibility for the fledgling educational system continued for years. The controversy centered on whom should be taught, what and how much children of the poor should be taught, and who should pay for it. By the 1830s and 1840s, the colonial government was funding public and Christian schools for poor children while families with money provided education at home, paid for their children to be taught by a tutor, or sent the children to be educated in England.

"Children without protectors," identified shortly after the landing of the First Fleet, were placed in a type of "foster care" with the government providing extra rations to the care families. This effort failed and it became necessary to find a way to cope with and pay for orphans. A small orphanage for girls was established on Norfolk Island in 1795 and another in Sydney in 1801. The orphanages were supported by land grants and funds from the British and the colony. Treatment was austere and provisions minimal. Males were placed in the Sydney orphanage when a new one was opened for females outside of Sydney in 1818 (Dickey 1980, p. 16). The responsibility for administering orphanages was assigned to the Anglican church in 1824. By 1840, the Colonial Secretary's Office held responsibility for two orphanages set up into separate institutions, one Protestant and one Roman Catholic (Dickey 1980, p. 17).

The "New South Wales Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge and Benevolence in these Territories and the Neighbouring Islands" was established in 1813 and represented the first non-government effort to be concerned with the poor and needy in the community. Six of the seven founders were members of the clergy. They believed that the Society could "relieve distress" and, at the same time, provide "instruction in religion and virtue" (Dickey 1980, p. 21). With "regionalized case work," the Society

granted outdoor relief as a supplement to government provisions and, consequently, defined the deserving poor (Dickey 1980, pp. 21-22).

A new, larger Benevolent Society of New South Wales (NSW) superseded the original organization and merged with other small, public societies in 1818. The focus and goals of the new Society remained the same as those of its predecessor, with an emphasis on goods and food (Dickey 1980, p. 24). In 1821, the Benevolent Society of NSW accepted the responsibility of a publicly built "asylum" to house those unable to care for themselves. In the years to come, this became a hospital for the "chronically sick." "The benevolent asylum had become the residual destination for a range of people quite unable to live independently" (Dickey 1980, p. 25). The Benevolent Society of NSW enjoyed the money grants for the care of the poor and chronically ill until the British withdrew their support in the 1840s. The colonial government, then, continued providing grants to the Benevolent Society of NSW for custodial care. In effect, the Benevolent Society, a public association became the "residual provider of social welfare" with a combination of British, colonial and public funds over the years (Dickey 1980, p. 27).

In Van Diemen's Land, however, the governor refused to fund the work of the benevolent societies because the

government already supported the sick and aged ex-convicts (approximately 40% of the population) on the island. The early responsibility for emergency outdoor relief to the needy fell on the benevolent societies with money donated by the community. In Van Diemen's Land, the benevolent societies and smaller relief societies were short-lived. They yielded to public opinion and the economic conditions (depression) of the time and closed their doors in the 1840s. As the public donations diminished, the government was forced to accept the obligation to provide minimal residential support to only the neediest of the poor, sick, and aged (Dickey 1980, pp. 28-29).

The English Poor Law Amendments of 1834 were largely rejected by the colonies and their administrators. According to Dickey, the colonies were happy to allow the benevolent societies to manage programs and money, essentially from England, refusing to accept responsibility for the needy (1980, p. 27).

England gradually withdrew its financial support in the 1840s and promoted local responsibility and self-sufficiency. As the convict populations decreased, the British responsibility and funding dwindled to the colonies. During this period, capitalism had a strong foothold in the economy of the colonies and new settlements were founded in Victoria, South and Western Australia. In the long run, these developments provided

financial benefits to English investors and lower costs to the British government (Dickey 1980, p. 31).

All services for the sick, insane, preservation of the Aboriginal, children, and custodial care of the poor and aged became a local responsibility. The gradual withdrawal of outside financial support and reduced public donations compelled each of the colonies to formulate a strategy for dealing with these problems. Government hospitals became "public, voluntary and charitable," serving the entire population, free and convict (Dickey 1980, pp. 38-39). The hospitals, some associated with the benevolent societies, were supported by subscriber donations, government payments, and grants. The hospitals, administered by an elected Board of Directors, could specify criteria for admission or exclusion of patients. Admission into a hospital was contingent upon "the recommendation of a subscriber" or a "government order" (Dickey 1980, pp. 55-56).

The benevolent societies continued to provide outdoor relief and custodial care for the poor, aged, and insane who were unable to fend for themselves. In 1862 the Benevolent Society of NSW was relieved of the administrative duties of residential care of the aged and poor, which was taken over by the government. The Benevolent Society became a quasi-government agency when it was directed to continue with outdoor relief and focus on

destitute children and hospital maternity cases (Dickey 1980, p. 47). The colonial government in New South Wales, therefore, accepted responsibility for the aged, sick, and poor. Tasmania provided for the needy from the convict era and never surrendered their responsibility for the aged and destitute convicts, although they provided only minimal subsistence in the cruel prison colonies on the island (Dickey 1980, p. 48).

The other colonies, all very isolated from one another, also developed their own strategies to cope with the destitute, insane, and aged. The Melbourne Ladies Benevolent Society, established in 1851, was concerned with outdoor relief for the "deserving poor." South Australia had the Destitute Board and Western Australia established the Perth Poor House, an immigrant shelter, a hospital, and an asylum in the 1860s. These were all government financed relief efforts (Dickey 1980, p. 55). The Church of England Benevolent Society and the Dorcas Society were also involved in poor relief activities in Western Australia during the 1870s (Dickey 1980, p. 59).

The Aboriginal and the insane received little thought during this period and were seen as a threat to the growing colonies. The Aboriginal could not be fully incorporated into capitalist way of life so were despised and displaced to interior areas or reservations (Dickie 1980, pp. 64-66). The insane were incarcerated because they

were considered a threat to the settlers' safety and propriety.

The Destitute Children's Society, established in 1851, was seen as a solution for the care and education of orphan children. The government was hesitant to accept responsibility for these children when someone else would do it, even though the majority of the funding still came from government sources. In Victoria, the Neglected and Criminal Children Act of 1864 established government responsibility for neglected children and continued money to private charities for the care of orphans. The value of large institutions for children, the reformatories, nautical training ships and industrial schools, were questioned and lost favor by 1880. Foster care was being examined as another option for care of neglected and orphaned children (Dickey 1980, pp. 59-64). The colony of Victoria supplied a minimum standard of schooling under a compulsory education scheme which was introduced in 1873 (Castles 1978, p. 25; Jones 1980, p. 24).

With increased population, by immigration and natural increase, the maturing of the colonies, criticisms of existing policies, and relative prosperity, politicians began contemplating social policies regarding the less fortunate in the 1870s and 1880s. According to Dickey, "expansion of social welfare services were achieved by articulate members of the middle class" (1980, p. 69).

The first trade union was recognized by South Australia in 1876 (Castles 1978, p. 25).

This same middle class sought hospitals which were hygienic and modern. Medical hospitals in many communities were built and old hospitals rebuilt using government aid and providing up-to-date techniques and treatment between 1870 and 1890 (Dickey 1980, p. 72). These new general hospitals began to serve middle class patients, as well as the poor, and admission was based on illness rather than poverty. Instead of the charitable hospital, the middle class patients began paying for treatment. In most cases, however, the general hospitals were funded primarily by government money (Dickey 1980, pp. 70-80). Along with the general hospitals, convalescent hospitals soon developed for the chronically ill, aged, and insane. The Austin Hospital in Melbourne and Sydney's Carrington Hospital, established in 1882 and 1889, respectively, provided long-term care for the chronically ill and freed the general hospitals to perform acute care services for the sick and injured (Dickey 1980, pp. 75-76).

The Aboriginal continued to be feared by the expanding population and in the 1890s, the Queensland government moved the Aboriginal to inland reserves (Dickey 1980, p. 94).

The "emptying-the-barracks" movement effectively and dramatically reduced the number of children requiring

supervision. Many infants and children were moved from large institutions to foster care situations. Due to a lack of children, the Queen's Asylum in Tasmania was closed in 1879. Two-thirds of the foster parents in South Australia never received payment for children they housed. According to Dickey (1980, p. 82), only 10% to 15% of the children stayed in institutions. In New South Wales, the State Children Relief Act of 1881 and amendments of 1886 established boarding out as the preferable and a cheaper means of caring for children. This Act specified children for which the colony was responsible (the "state" children), established a governing board and appointment of its officers, and secured the necessary funding (Dickey 1980, pp. 82-84).

The benevolent societies and a variety of churches continued to provide outdoor relief to the poor and aged. The Society of St. Vincent de Paul and the Salvation Army also found a position in poor relief. In the 1880s, cash grants became another method of dispensing outdoor relief. A Charity Organization Society was established in New South Wales in 1878 and Melbourne (Victoria) in 1887, which sustained the principles of friendly visiting, investigation, and the deserving poor. These organizations "provided the safety net for the destitute before the provision of state aged pensions" (Jones 1980, p. 16).

The relief efforts in Australia were stretched to their very limits by the extended period of depression and drought which struck from the late 1880s to early 1890s and lasted through the turn of the century (Dickey 1980, p. 96). Notions about blaming the economic conditions and society, not the individual, for unemployment and misery began to surface during the long depression. Social welfare policies and legislation regarding "industrial disputes, hours of work, the protection of neglected children, cash allowances for the aged and invalids, and public health and factory regulation" (Dickey 1980, p. 98) were considered in various colonies. South Australia gave women the right to an equal vote in 1894 (Castles 1978, p. 31).

In 1896, the New South Wales government started to provide outdoor relief to the destitute unemployed and their families. They also approved the payment of a boarding out fee to poor mothers for their own children. In Tasmania and Victoria, the government rejected these ideas and poor relief continued under the control of the benevolent and Charity Organization Societies. Churches, private rescue efforts and city missions also tried to assist those in need.

New South Wales and Victoria approved different Old Age Pension schemes in 1900 which provided limited income for some of the aged (Jones 1980, p. 22). Germany,

Denmark, Belgium, and New Zealand had already introduced some type of pension scheme for their aged and invalid populations by 1900 (Jones 1980, p. 19). The New South Wales scheme was considered generous. It provided pensions to men over 65 years and women over 60 years with minimal limitations, but with the inclusion of a moral clause. Dickey states that pensioners had to meet "certain income, capital and behavioural conditions" (1980, p. 113). This pension plan was "non-contributory" and "financed out of consolidated revenue" (Dickey 1980, p. 113). The Victorian plan was harsh and selective in nature and included only the deserving poor.

The Australian states, by the turn of the century, had in place social welfare legislation in the areas of foster care, children's allowances for the needy, relief for the unemployed, health, and education. According to some, Australia (and New Zealand) had become "the 'social laboratories' of the world" (Social Welfare 1979, p. 355) following Germany's lead and moving in the direction of a "welfare state" (Jones 1980, p. 19).

Federation and Beyond: 1901-1988

At the time of federation in 1901, the Commonwealth of Australia already had an expansive history of social welfare policies established in response to those in need or established as rights of the people. The Commonwealth

Constitution conferred on the federal government 39 powers, which included the two welfare powers of quarantine and old-age and invalid pensions (Mendelsohn 1979, p. 37). The individual state governments retained a majority of powers in regard to the welfare of their people and have continued to do so, with the federal government as a facilitator of policy (Mendelsohn 1979, p. 36). Each state had differing needs and priorities for social action, just as the developing colonies had during the previous century. The early Commonwealth and some states did provide innovative social legislation based on more humane treatment, a need to increase the declining birth rate, and the rights of the people. According to Jones, however, "Australian social welfare policy is the story of overseas innovations selectively adapted to Australian conditions--often imperfectly" (1980, p. 26).

In 1904, the Commonwealth government enacted legislation to establish an arbitration court to hear interstate labor disputes (Castles 1978, p. 34) and basic living wage legislation was enacted in 1907 (Jones 1980, p. 28). The Commonwealth instituted an old-age pension scheme in 1909 which superseded the state plans initiated earlier in New South Wales and Victoria (Social Services 1984, p. 595). An invalid pension was initiated in 1910 and a maternity allowance was instituted by the Commonwealth in 1912 which provided a lump sum payment to

parents for each birth (Dickey 1980, p. 126; Jones 1980, p. 9). A repatriation pension and a limited school health service were enacted in 1912. Repatriation benefits were extended in 1914 and 1919 with injured soldiers returning from World War I and increased numbers of war widows. A child endowment scheme was enacted in New South Wales in the 1920s which redistributed funds in favor of those with children, for those who met the requirements based on a means test (Jones 1980, p. 34). A Commonwealth child endowment plan was rejected by parliament in 1927 (Jones 1980, p. 36). Social insurance schemes were debated in the 1920s but never gained enough support for legislation to be enacted. Queensland introduced unemployment insurance in 1923 and all states provided food relief systems for those unable to find work during the depression.

According to the Collins Australian Encyclopedia, following this spate of social legislation, the next 30 years saw no federal expansion of social services due to the projected costs of such an expansion (Social Servcies 1984, p. 595).

During and following World War II, the Commonwealth social service programs expanded. Child endowment was introduced in 1941, widow's pensions in 1942, funeral benefits for old age and invalid pensioners in 1943, and sickness/unemployment benefits in 1944 (Social Services 1984, p. 595). The government at that time favored

financing of social programs from taxation (income tax) instead of through contributions. A referendum in 1946 empowered the Commonwealth government to enact legislation in a variety of areas related to family maintenance, health care, unemployment, and student benefits (Social Services 1984, p. 595).

In the years since 1945, health care and insurance plans have been introduced. A contributory insurance plan was introduced in the 1950s which provided payment of medical and hospital expenses for those who joined the fund. This type of medical insurance received criticism because not all people participated in the plan. When a new government (the Labour party) took over in 1972, a universal insurance plan was introduced to be funded by a levy on income. It would provide basic medical care and hospitalization. Before this plan was approved by Parliament, the opposition (the Liberal party) changed the financial aspects and Medibank was adopted with funding from consolidated revenues (Social Services 1984, p. 596). Additional coverage for medical care could also be purchased through private insurance plans. The Medibank effort became unworkable when a variety of changes was implemented in 1975. Thus, by 1981, Medibank had failed and the only persons with medical care coverage were those participating in private health societies. In 1983, a new universal insurance scheme, called Medicare, was

introduced. It provided much the same coverage as Medibank (free standard-ward hospital treatment and payment of a portion of scheduled medical fees). The Medicare system was financed by a 1% tax on income. Additional coverage could still be purchased through private insurance funds and societies. The Medicare system, with optional private fund supplements, is currently in use in Australia (Social Services 1984, p. 596).

Legislation to ensure a "fair and reasonable wage" or the provision of a "basic living wage" for employees (Watts 1987, p. 46) was first addressed in 1907. This was also a move toward equal pay for equal work. The Harvester Judgment, delivered by Higgins of the Arbitration Court, determined what minimum wage would be required for a family to live at slightly higher than subsistence level (Henderson 1981, p. 181). The amount of the basic wage and whether it should be subsistence level or an average level was debated again in 1910, 1914 and 1921. The calculation of the cost of living provided a basis for argument during these years (Watts 1987, p. 48).

An effort to diminish the social injustice of lower pay for equal work for women in labor was addressed beginning in Queensland in 1916 and New South Wales in 1958. During the war years, females were generally paid only 55% of the male salary and through the early 1970s,

the female pay rate stayed at 75% of the male salary (Maddock and McLean 1987, pp. 94-95). The Family Law Act of 1975 established equal rights for women in the areas of divorce, ownership and child custody. Other states also legislated equal opportunity acts through the 1970s. Maddock and McLean stated that, "By 1981 the average adult male award (salary) was only 5 percent greater than the female award" (1987, p. 270). The Commonwealth passed a Sex Discrimination Act in 1984 and the Affirmative Action Act in 1986 (Baldock and Cass 1988, p. 228). "In 1987, four states--South Australia, New South Wales, Victoria and Western Australia--had anti-discrimination or equal opportunity legislation in operation" (Baldock and Cass 1988, p 227).

According to Mendelsohn, "after seventy-five years of federation Australians were spending one-third of the national budget and one-tenth of the national income on welfare" (1979, p. 325) with some degree of adequacy, although in 1975, there were still "social inequities" and "too many families in poverty" (1979, p. 325). Jones states that

> Australia is usually regarded as a welfare state laggard, and until the 1970s, benefits were generally selective, austere, flat rate and non-contributory. A residual philosophy only provided benefits when private efforts failed. (1980, p. 4)

Social Work in Australia

Professional social work, according to Lawrence, began to develop in Australia in the 1920s as a result of

> urbanism, industrialization, social and economic change, a large social service expansion, overseas example, and the stimulation provided by qualified social workers themselves. (1964, p. ix)

The profession of social work is reported to be poorly developed, however (Jones 1980, p. 289). Jones states that in 1941, there were 95 social workers in Australia and 20 of those were employed by the Commonwealth government (1979, p. 289). Baldock and Cass report that 368 social workers were employed in Australia in 1954 (1988, p. 15). According to Lawrence, there were "only twelve qualified social workers" employed in Perth, Western Australia in 1954 (1964, p. 135).

Some of the reasons offered for the underdevelopment of the profession in Australia are the society's residual conception of welfare, the lack of any distinct social problems, prosperity, and the Australian resentment of paternalism (Jones 1980, p. 289). Other explanations emphasize that social workers are usually women in positions which lack authority (Baldock & Cass 1988, p. 15; Jones 1980, p. 289). As social work has developed to a high and elaborate level in the United States, Britain and other countries, Australia has lagged behind in developing the personal social services (Jones 1980, p. 289).

According to Lawrence, associations of social workers developed in all Australian states by 1947, following the lead of the states where training and university courses were available and associations had already been developed--New South Wales (1932), Victoria (1935), and South Australia (1941) (1964, pp. 94, 173; Boas and Crawley 1976, p. 7). Victoria and New South Wales formed hospital almoners associations in 1932 which became a national organization in 1934 (Boas and Crawley 1976, p. 7).

The Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW) was first established in 1946 (Lawrence 1964, p. 130) and limited membership to qualified social workers in 1947 (Lawrence 1964, p. 177). There were almost 300 members in 1949 and 360 by 1958 (Lawrence 1964, p. 177). The social work qualifications generally accepted were the same as those provided by the AASW-approved schools of social work. AASW consulted with educational programs to establish acceptable course work for a social work qualification. The AASW was also responsible for determining what overseas qualifications were eligible for membership. The AASW gained a quasi-trade union status in 1955 when it registered with the Commonwealth Arbitration Court in an effort to protect the professionalism, skills, working conditions, and salaries of social workers (Lawrence 1964, p. 181). The AASW changed the minimum educational

requirements for eligibility to a four-year degree in 1974 (Boas and Crawley 1976, p. 21).

According to Jones, there was a major values struggle within the profession in the 1970s regarding education, credentials and membership qualifications. In 1975, the Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW) split into the AASW, dropping its union status, and the Australian Social Welfare Union (1980, p. 289). The profession has recently seen a revival of sorts with increased interest in the development of a unified professional association and more schools of social work with approved programs. The AASW was re-established with a new constitution in 1978 (Jones 1980, p. 289) and currently has approximately 3,000 qualified members (Cook 1988).

To date, social work employment in Australia generally requires that the applicant employee be "eligible" for membership in the AASW, even if they choose not to join. It is also important to remember that AASW members would be the more conservative, pro-social work establishment, people involved in the social work profession (Ife 1988). Currently, there is no form of registration or licensing of social workers in Australia, with the exception of AASW eligibility. Methods of registration or licensing are being discussed by AASW and the profession, as anyone can hang a shingle and practice social work (Harries 1988). In 1979, Learner discussed the

issues of registration and its impracticability due to the large numbers of unqualified welfare workers employed in Australia and the ambiguous categories of employment and tasks of those welfare workers (1979, pp. 90-91). The West Australian Social Worker (Registration 1988/4, p. 8) has recently presented the role and value of registration to the AASW members in Western Australia. The issue of registration is also being studied by other state branches and the federal AASW (Registration 1988/4, p. 8).

In a 1968 AASW study of social workers in Australia:

> Casework existed in 96% of the agencies (who responded), and administration/policy-making in over 80%, with community work, group work and research . . . still significantly evident. (cited in Boas and Crawley 1976, p. 34-35).

McLelland reports that the types of agencies who employed social workers in New South Wales in 1971 and Victoria in 1972 were primarily state governments (33% and 38%), hospitals (30% and 22%) and non-government agencies (22% and 27%, respectively) (cited in Boas and Crawley 1976, p. 33).

Social Work Education in Australia

Social work educational programs have developed to their present level as a result of the establishment, growth, and supervision of the Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW) throughout the past 40 years. According to Lawrence, the evolution of the training

movement in Australia was much like that in Britain and the United States (1964, p. 7). Training in Australia began in 1929 when a British-trained "almoner," Agnes Macintyre, was hired to work in the Melbourne Hospital and trained three other social workers (Lawrence 1964, p. 35). Educational programs progressed from short-term training schemes established by regional social work associations, primarily the Institutes of Hospital Almoners (Boas and Crawley 1976, p. 6), which later became two-year courses affiliated with local universities.

In the years between 1929 and 1941, only 112 social workers were trained at the five training institutes (Baldock and Cass 1988, p. 15). By 1958, the number of Australian-educated social workers totaled 1,000 (Boas and Crawley 1976, p. 16).

The first social work college degree available in Australia was a two-year degree, considered an entry level degree, which was offered at universities in New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia through the early 1940s (Boas and Crawley 1976, pp. 18-19). The next development was the Diploma degree, which required three years of university course work. The Diploma became available in the early 1950s at the University of Melbourne and at universities in all other states by the early 1970s. The Diploma was often combined with a Bachelor of Arts degree by the early 1960s (Boas and

Crawley 1976, pp. 18-19). The University of Queensland started the first Bachelor of Social Work (BSW) degree program in Australia in the early 1960s. Master of Social Work (MSW) graduate programs were offered at the Universities of New South Wales and Queensland in the early 1970s. Other advanced social work training, such as certification courses or post-BSW Diploma degrees, were available prior to that time (Boas and Crawley 1976, pp. 18-19). Currently, a minimum of one, but usually more, universities or technical colleges in each state offer the BSW course; many offer MSW qualifications, and several offer doctoral programs.

The Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW) continues to be responsible for the accreditation of social work programs while the Australian Association for Social Work Education is responsible for the development and coordination of social work programs (Kendall 1984, p. 3).

The courses leading to a social work degree in Australia are very similar to the accredited programs in the United States. Course work usually includes class work from the social and behavioral sciences, social work theory, practice and methods classes, legal issues, professional issues, research, administration, social policy, and supervised field experience. According to the Council on Overseas Professional Qualifications (COPQ), there were

13 accredited BSW programs in Australia in 1987. Some of these programs required approved undergraduate study prior to admission to the BSW course of study (Australia 1987, p. 7).

In summary, the founding of Australia, its current state of affairs, the development of a concept of social welfare, and the development of the profession of social work and a coordinated social work educational system have led to questions regarding the practice of social work in Australia today. This study was undertaken to determine if the profession of social work, in Australia and the United States, is comparable or disparate in a variety of areas. Those areas considered included salaries, educational background and qualifications, and employment characteristics.

Australian social work has developed in much the same form as it did in Britain and the United States. Utilizing the developments from both Britain and the United States, Australia has increasingly diversified its professional practice paradigm, objectives, and educational programs to suit its own unique needs and people.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Design

The design of this study was survey research which was undertaken to describe and compare the qualifications and salaries of Australian social workers with social workers in the United States. Where there are comparisons, data for the American social workers was obtained from the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) report, Salaries in Social Work (NASW 1987).

NASW states that their data for Salaries in Social Work (NASW 1987, p. 1) was collected from NASW members beginning July 1, 1986 and continued until June 30, 1987. The report states further that "members provided information voluntarily to a set of questions included on either the annual membership renewal form or the membership application form" (1987, p. 1). NASW states that they received "33,243 member responses from the overall membership, which ranged in size from approximately 100,000 . . . to 108,000" during the data collection period (1987, p. 1). From the total responses, NASW reports that "26,338 responses were usable for the purposes" of their study (1987 p. 1). Therefore, the

percentage of NASW members who were utilized for this study ranged from 24% to 26% of the total NASW membership.

The descriptive aspect of this study discusses the demographic characteristics, qualifications, and salaries of social workers in Australia. The comparative focus examines data from both Australia and the United States to determine if a significant difference exists between the social workers in both countries.

The following questions were addressed:

1. What salaries do social workers in Australia receive for their professional services?

2. Do social workers in Australia receive salaries which are equivalent with the salaries of social workers in the United States?

3. Do social workers in Australia who hold equivalent degrees and comparable experience receive equal salaries?

4. What are the functions, auspices, settings, and practice areas of social workers in Australia in comparison with American social workers?

5. Does the "gender gap" also occur in Australia, with male social workers earning more and/or having a greater percentage of the administrative positions than their female counterparts?

Sample

The Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW) is organized much like the NASW in the United States. There is a federal office in Canberra with seven branch offices--one in each of the six states and an office in the Australian Capitol Trust territory. The Northern Territory social workers (9) are included in the West Australian branch. As of August 10, 1988, there were approximately 3,000 members of the AASW (Cook 1988).

The population for this study was obtained from the West Australian and Victorian branches of the AASW and represented 38% (1,151) of the total AASW membership. A sample of 558 Australian social workers were mailed questionnaires. These social workers were qualified members or student members of the Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW). A total of 340 completed questionnaires were returned (a 61% response rate) and these made up the final sample.

The West Australian mailing labels were printed in order of post code (zip code in America) on sheets with 12 labels per sheet. Some of the sheets contained fewer than 12 labels. Four labels were initially deleted because members lived outside of Australia or requested that mail be discontinued. Students in social work programs were not differentiated, and so were included in the sample. The method used for selecting the AASW members to receive

questionnaires was the following: every tenth label was omitted, yielding a sample of 9 out of every 10 labels. Thus, a majority (308, or 90%) of the 342 West Australian members received questionnaires. The West Australian questionnaires were mailed, via the "Australia Post," to 308 AASW-West Australian members on August 30, 1988.

The AASW-Victorian branch sent the researcher 809 mailing labels for their members. Of these, 84 were marked and excluded because they were B.A. students, retired social workers, or social workers not currently working in the field. This left 725 labels. The mailing labels were listed by post code (zip code) on sheets with a maximum of 33 labels per sheet. The 725 labels were subjected to a nonrandom sampling with every third label included as part of the sample. The 250 Victoria questionnaires were taken to Australia and mailed to the AASW-Victorian branch members, via "Australia Post" on December 5, 1988.

Thus, the study surveyed 9 out of 10 members of the West Australian membership and 1 out of 3 members of the Victorian branch.

Instrument

The researcher utilized the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) annual membership questionnaire (Appendix A), with minor adaptations, to collect the same

data from social workers in Australia. The modified questionnaire (Appendix B), titled the Occupation and Salary Questionnaire, was mailed to the Australian social workers. Letters of explanation (Appendices C, D, E, and F) accompanied each questionnaire, along with a postage-paid return envelope.

The minor adaptations utilized to modify the NASW annual membership questionnaire to the Occupation and Salary Questionnaire, included the following:

1. Date of birth was changed to a categorical age-range question and required the respondent to select an age category.

2. A question was included which asked if respondents lived in a major or smaller urban area or a rural area. Respondents were asked to list the state or territory in which they lived.

3. The ethnic origin categories were adjusted to reflect the Australian population.

4. The question regarding "practice commission" was deleted.

5. Salary categories were not changed from United States dollars ($) to Australian dollars (A$?); only the symbol was changed. A$ amounts were converted to United States dollars at the time of data analysis, using the conversion rate of A$.87 = $1.00.

6. A question was included which asked if salary category selected was for full-time or part-time employment. All salary responses were included in comparison of Australian and American salaries as NASW did not distinguish between full-time or part-time employment in salary computations for their study (NASW 1987, p. 2).

7. A question was included which asked the amount of income from respondent's second job.

8. A categorical question was included which asked respondents for total years of social work experience since first social work degree. Respondents were asked to circle the number corresponding to their age group.

9. There were also semantic and vocabulary changes.

The Occupation and Salary Questionnaire (Appendix B) consisted of 13 questions with 18 responses relative to the respondent's demographic attributes, educational background, occupational characteristics, and salary. A majority of the questions (15) were categorical and asked that the respondent circle the appropriate number or place an appropriate letter in the box corresponding to each question. Two questions requested that respondents list their state or territory of residence and their educational background.

The cover letters (Appendices C and D) from this researcher and thesis advisor which accompanied each questionnaire explained the purpose of the study and that

participation was entirely voluntary. The researcher's cover letter also specified that the participant's consent was assumed with the return of the questionnaire. The West Australian and Victorian branches of the Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW) provided letters of support (Appendices E and F), which were also included with each questionnaire.

The researcher obtained an "Australia Post" Freepost number so that questionnaires could be returned by respondents free of charge in self-addressed envelope.

Procedure

The researcher attempted to contact, by letter, the federal office of the AASW and representatives of the West Australian branch of AASW but received no response prior to departure to Australia.

Upon arrival in Western Australia, the researcher contacted both the federal office and the West Australian branch of the AASW. The researcher spoke with Jaye Cook, the Executive Officer, at the AASW federal office in Canberra. Maria Harries, the Secretary at the AASW-West Australian branch, was the liaison between her branch and the researcher.

The researcher met with the President and Secretary of the AASW-West Australian branch, Joe Calleja and Maria Harries, respectively, who assisted with vocabulary

changes so that the questionnaire would be clear and understandable to the Australian respondents. Mr. Calleja and Mrs. Harries also secured the approval of their branch Committee of Management for the Occupation and Salary Questionnaire to be distributed in Western Australia. The AASW-West Australia branch president, Joe Calleja, provided a letter of support (Appendix E) and mailing labels for the 342 members in Western Australia and the Northern Territory (the Northern Territory does not have its own branch).

In telephone conversations with Mrs. Jaye Cook, Executive Officer, AASW federal office, it was determined that Western Australia was not representative of the 3,000 AASW members in all of Australia. With the assistance of Mrs. Cook, the AASW-Victorian branch agreed to consider the request for their participation in this study.

The AASW-Victorian branch President, Helen Murray, and Administrative Officer, Glad Hawkins, secured approval of their branch Council to assist the researcher with this study. The Victorian branch sent a support letter and 809 mailing labels to the researcher. In a subsequent telephone conversation with Mrs. Hawkins at the AASW-Victorian Branch office, this researcher clarified and received support that 250 questionnaires would be mailed to their members.

Data Analysis

The responses totaled 340. Data collected on returned questionnaires were coded and entered into an IBM-PCXT using the CRunch Interactive Statistical Package (CRISP) software program. The raw data was then exported to a Cyber Mainframe computer for data analysis utilizing the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Frequencies, percentages, means, and other measures of central tendency and variability were obtained and compared with the NASW membership data. Post hoc tests performed included cross-tabulations, chi-square, *t*-tests, and analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a Scheffé procedure used to compare the Australian and American groups to determine if significant differences existed.

Limitations

Due to a lack of resources, the sample of the AASW members' returned questionnaires represented only 11% of the total membership; therefore, results should be interpreted with caution. The time lapse between the collection of NASW's data from July 1, 1986 through June 30, 1987 (NASW 1998, p. 1) and this researcher's data collection in Australia from September, 1988 through January, 1989, most likely had an effect on the salaries reported in this study. The time differences should be considered when reviewing the data for both the Australian and American social workers.

The terminology in the ethnicity categories were incompatible between countries, so a comparison was not possible.

A typographical error on question 9, category A, of the Occupational and Salary Questionnaire may have biased the Australian responses in the practice area. The category should have been "Children and Youth," but instead read "Children and Family." There was already a category for "Family Services" (category C).

Chapter 4

Results

This study described demographic characteristics of Australian social workers and compared educational degrees, salaries, primary functions, settings, auspices, practice areas, and gender differences between social workers in Australia and the United States (US). Where there are comparisons, data for the American social workers was collected by the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) and presented in Salaries in Social Work (NASW 1987).

Demographic Characteristics

Table 1 shows the frequency and percentage of the age groups, sex, and ethnicity of the 340 Australian social workers, compared with data for the American social workers.

Of the respondents, 80.6% lived in a major urban area, 8.5% in a smaller urban area, and 10.3% lived in rural areas. In regard to the states where the respondents lived, 28.8% did not specify in which state they lived, 41.5% were from the Western Australia (or the Northern Territory), and 29.7% lived in Victoria.

Table 1. Descriptive Characteristics

	Australia (N = 340)		United States* (N = 26,338)	
	n	%	n	%
Age				
29 & under	52	15.3	2,372	10.0
30-39	120	35.3	8,798	37.0
40-49	106	31.2	7,738	32.4
50-59	55	16.2	3,644	15.3
60 and over	7	2.1	1,285	5.3
Sex				
Male	112	32.9	6,498	29.0
Female	227	66.8	15,908	71.0
Ethnicity				
Australian	222	65.3	0	
African	10	3.0	0	
Asian	10	3.0	0	
European	72	21.2	0	
Non-European	11	3.2	0	
Other	14	4.2	413	2.1
White	0		18,235	90.0
Black	0		917	4.5
Asian/Pacific	0		290	1.4
Hispanic (all)	0		411	2.0

*All American data from NASW, Inc., 1987, Salaries in Social Work, Silver Spring, MD: National Association of Social Workers, Inc.

Descriptive and Comparative Analysis

Social workers in Australia received salaries, with category midpoints converted from Australian dollars ($A) to United States dollars ($), as displayed in Table 2. This table shows the midpoint salary within each category, and the frequency and percentage of respondents who fell within that salary category. The mean salary for all Australian social workers was $26,653.

Table 3 shows educational degrees by frequency and percentage which are held by the Australian social workers. The majority (62.4%) of social workers in Australia hold a Bachelor of Social Work (BSW) degree, while the Master of Social Work (MSW) degree is the predominant degree in the United States, with 90.9% of the NASW sample holding that degree. Only the BSW, MSW, and Doctor of Social Work (DSW) or Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) were compared in conformance with NASW's study.

Salaries of social workers in Australia were then compared with the salaries of American social workers, as reported in Salaries in Social Work (NASW 1987), at the BSW, MSW and DSW/PhD levels. A *t*-test was utilized to determine if a significant difference existed between the Australians and the Americans at those educational levels.

Table 4 displays the mean salaries for social workers in each country at each educational level. It shows that the Australian social workers received higher salaries

Table 2. Salaries in Australia (N = 340)

Midpoint	n	%
$0-4350*	15	4.4
$10,875	15	4.4
$14,138	8	2.4
$16,313	7	2.1
$19,575	37	10.9
$23,925	64	18.8
$30,450	154	45.3
$39,150	31	9.1
$47,850	5	1.5
$56,550+*	4	1.2

*Six "0" responses and one $65,250+ response are collapsed for display.

Table 3. Education Degrees

	Australia (N = 340)		United States* (N = 23,515)	
Degree	n	%	n	%
Diploma	20	5.9	-	-
BA	5	1.5	-	-
Diploma/BA	32	9.4	-	-
BSW	212	62.4	1,150	4.9
Graduate Diploma	19	5.6	-	-
MA/MS	5	1.5	-	-
MSW	35	10.3	21,368	90.9
DSW/PhD	12	3.5	997	4.2

*All American data from NASW, Inc., 1987, Salaries in Social Work, Silver Spring, MD: National Association of Social Workers, Inc.

Table 4. Comparison of Mean Salaries by Degree

Degree	Mean Salaries: Australia[a] (N = 259)[c]	Mean Salaries: United States[b] (N = 23,515)	df	t
BSW	$26,250	$22,900	210	5.56*
MSW	$30,450	$27,700	33	1.42
DSW/PhD	$39,875	$35,500	11	1.68
Mean	$32,192	$28,700		

*p is less than .01 for a two-tailed test.

[a]Australian responses converted to US dollars at A$.87 = US$1.00.

[b]All American data from NASW, Inc., 1987, Salaries in Social Work, Silver Spring, MD: National Association of Social Workers, Inc.

[c]Australian N is less than 340, as only those holding US degree equivalents recognized by NASW are included.

than their counterparts in the United States. The salary differences between countries were not statistically significant at the MSW or DSW/PhD levels. At the BSW level, however, the Australian social workers received significantly higher salaries. The researcher also found that 81% of the Australian social workers were involved in full-time employment with an increased mean annual salary to $29,390 and only 14% were earning an income in a second job.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the Australian social workers' salary by degree, using the same categories or educational "groups" displayed in Table 3, is displayed in Table 5.

There was a significant relationship between salary and degree; therefore, another post-hoc test, the Scheffé, was utilized to determine where the difference existed. The results of the Scheffé showed that a salary difference statistically significant at the .05 level existed between those with DSW/PhD degrees and those holding the entry level social work degrees, such as the diploma, BA, BSW, or a post-BA diploma.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also utilized to compare years of social work experience with salaries to determine if there was a significant difference between the two variables. The one way test for salary by experience is shown in Table 6. The categories or

Table 5. Salary by Degree (Australia Only) (N = 333)

Source	df	F ratio	p
Between groups	7	5.393	.0000
Within groups	326		
Total	333		

Table 6. Salary by Experience (Australia) (N = 333)

Source	df	F ratio	p
Between groups	6	5.824	.0000
Within groups	327		
Total	333		

"groups" used for analysis of the significance of "experience" to salary included: under 2 years, 2 to 5 years, 6 to 10 years, 11 to 15 years, 16 to 20 years, 21 to 25 years, and over 25 years of social work experience.

A significant difference between salary and experience existed, so a post-hoc Scheffé was utilized to determine where the difference existed. The results of the Scheffé showed that the significant salary differences at the .05 level existed between those with 16 to 20 years and those with under 2 years and 2 to 5 years of experience. The other experience categories were not significantly different in relation to salary.

In the analysis of variance (ANOVA) utilized to compare educational degrees and years of experience with the salaries of social workers in Australia, the source of variation table showed that there was no interaction between degree and experience in regard to salary.

A comparison of the work situations, including employment function, auspice, setting, and practice area, in Australia and the United States is displayed in Tables 7, 8, 9, and 10. Table 7 shows the employment functions and percentages of Australian and American social workers involved in those functions. Both countries have a majority of their social workers involved in providing direct services (58.8% in Australia and 67% in the US). In Australia, there are a greater percentage of social

Table 7. Employment Function

Function	Australia (N = 330)		United States* (N = 25,761)	
	n	%	n	%
Direct Service	200	58.8	17,283	67.0
Management/Administration	46	13.5	4,831	19.0
Supervision	31	9.1	1,763	6.9
Policy Development	13	3.8	133	0.5
Consultation	9	2.6	413	1.6
Education	24	7.1	1,130	4.3
Other Social Work	7	0.7	208	0.7

*All American data from NASW, Inc., 1987, Salaries in Social Work, Silver Spring, MD: National Association of Social Workers, Inc.

Table 8. Employment Auspice

Auspice	Australia (N = 334) n	%	United States* (N = 25,238) n	%
Public Service--Local	17	5.0	4,866	19.2
Public Service--State	186	54.7	4,283	17.0
Public Service--Federal	39	11.5	909	3.7
Public Service--Military	1	0.3	259	1.0
Private/Nonprofit/ Sectarian	32	9.4	3,023	12.0
Private/Nonprofit/ Nonsectarian	37	10.9	6,786	26.9
Private for Profit	22	6.5	5,112	20.2

*All American data from NASW, Inc., 1987 , Salaries in Social Work, Silver Spring, MD: National Association of Social Workers, Inc.

Table 9. Employment Settings

	Australia (N = 333)		United States* (N = 26,034)	
Setting	n	%	n	%
Social Service Organization	141	41.5	6,421	24.7
Hospital	72	21.2	5,439	20.9
Outpatient	26	7.6	4,586	17
Institution	9	2.6	804	3.1
College/University	22	6.5	1,168	4.5
Elem./Secondary Schools	8	2.4	1,421	5.4
Private Practice/Solo	10	2.9	2,878	11.1
Private Practice/Group	4	1.2	1,107	4.2
Other	41	12.2	2,210	8.4

*All American data from NASW, Inc., 1987 , Salaries in Social Work, Silver Spring, MD: National Association of Social Workers, Inc.

Table 10. Employment Practice Areas

	Australia (N = 332)		United States* (N = 24,484)	
Practice Area	n	%	n	%
Children/Youth	102	30.4	4,173	17.0
Community Organizations	13	3.8	369	1.5
Family Services	12	3.5	3,201	13.1
Medical/Health Care	56	16.5	3,344	13.7
Mental Health	27	7.9	8,115	33.1
Public Assistance	17	5.0	284	1.2
School Social Work	9	2.6	1,142	4.7
Aged	11	3.2	1,247	5.1
Substance Abuse	12	3.5	999	4.1
Developmental Disability	10	2.9	749	3.0
Other	63	18.6	1,145	4.7

*All American data from NASW, Inc., 1987 , Salaries in Social Work, Silver Spring, MD: National Association of Social Workers, Inc.

workers involved in supervision, policy development/ analysis and education. The American social workers have a slightly greater percentage involved in management/ administration.

Table 8 displays the frequencies and percentages of the employment auspices in both Australia and the United States. A much greater percentage of social workers in Australia are employed by the state (54.7%) or federal governments (11.5%) than in the United States. The United States has a greater percentage of social workers employed by local government (19.2%), in the private/nonprofit/ nonsectarian sectors (26.9%), and private for profit organizations/agencies (20.2%).

Table 9 shows the employment settings of social workers in Australia and the United States. According to the table, the percentage of social workers in social service organizations is greater in Australia than in the United States; both countries employ medical social workers (hospital) at near the same percentage, and the United States has more social workers in outpatient clinics and in private practice/solo.

Table 10 shows the practice areas of social workers in Australia and the United States. Almost one-third (30.0%) of the social workers in Australia practiced with children and family, while a greater percentage of

American social workers were in the mental health and family service areas.

A *t*-test was utilized to determine if a "gender gap" exists in Australia. The *t*-test results showed that there was a significant difference between the mean annual salaries of males and females in Australia, with males earning a higher salary. The mean salary was $29,194 for males and $26,100 for females.

Table 11 shows a comparison of gender and mean salaries in Australia and the United States. With the Australian data, the *t*-test demonstrated a statistically significant difference between the male and female salaries, with the males earning higher salaries. With the United States data, the males earn a great deal more than the Australian males and females from both countries.

Table 12 shows degree by gender for the Australian sample. Males comprised one-third (33.0%) of the sample but held 46% of the degrees higher than BSW.

Table 11. Gender and Mean Salary Comparison

	Australia (N = 333)		United States* (N = 22,406)	
	n	X	n	X
Male	110	$29,194	6,498	$33,800
Female	223	$26,100	15,908	$25,900

*All American data from NASW, Inc., 1987, Salaries in Social Work, Silver Spring, MD: National Association of Social Workers, Inc.

Table 12. Degree by Gender (Australia Only) (N = 339)

Degree	Male	%	Female	%
Diploma	3	0.9	17	5.0
BA	2	0.6	3	0.9
Diploma/BA	9	2.7	23	6.8
BSW	65	19.2	146	43.1
Grad Diploma	7	2.1	12	3.5
MA/MS	3	0.9	2	0.6
MSW	17	5.0	18	5.3
DSW/PhD	6	1.8	6	1.8
Total	112	33.0	227	67.0

Chapter 5

Discussion

Overview

The purpose of this study was to compare the social work profession in Australia and the United States. It also briefly described the development and current state of social work, and the educational system for social work in Australia.

This study compared and described the salaries, qualifications, primary functions, settings, and male/female differences of the social work profession in Australia and the United States. The data for American social workers were collected by the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) and presented in Salaries in Social Work (NASW 1987). This study used the NASW survey with minor adaptations to collect the same data from Australian social workers who are members of the Australian Association of Social Workers.

This study found that social workers and the social work profession in Australia are doing better than expected, given the previous information that the profession was slow to develop or underdeveloped (Baldock and Cass 1988, p. 15; Jones 1980, p. 289).

Salaries

Results of this study found that the Australian social workers surveyed received salaries (based on salary category midpoints) which ranged from $0 to over $69,600 annually, with a mean annual salary of $26,653. The salaries were affected to a statistically significant degree by the respondent's age, gender, educational degree, and years of experience.

The researcher had anticipated that function (direct practice versus supervision or management/administration) and practice areas would affect salaries to a significant degree and they did. Employment setting also significantly affected the salaries of Australian social workers, while the employment auspice and state of residence were not significant factors in relation to salary.

An assumption on the part of this researcher was that the social worker's gender would not affect salaries in Australia because of the Commonwealth Sex Discrimination Act legislated in 1984 and anti-discrimination acts which were established by 1987 in four states (South Australia, New South Wales, Victoria and Western Australia) (Baldock and Cass 1988, pp. 227-228). It is interesting to observe that the anti-discrimination acts had been enacted in Victoria and Western Australia, the two states from which the Australian sample for this study was drawn.

The researcher had also expected the state of residence to affect salaries to a significant degree as Western Australia (and the Northern Territory) is very isolated in comparison to Victoria. According to Cook (1988), salary awards have, historically, been higher in the isolated areas. However, the state of residence did not significantly affect salaries in this study. The fact that only 239 of the 340 respondents filled in their state of residence on the questionnaire probably skewed or invalidated this question. Consequently, the results cannot be generalized to the AASW population at large.

In comparing the salaries of social workers in Australia and the United States, the researcher found that the mean annual salaries for social workers at all educational levels were higher in Australia. Corresponding to the American study, Salaries in Social Work (NASW 1987), all salaries for primary employment were included in computing the mean annual salary which was based upon the midpoint amount of each salary category. Higher salaries for Australian social workers was the opposite result from that expected by the researcher, as the profession of social work is reported to be "poorly developed in Australia" (Jones 1980, p. 289). With a lag in the development of social work, the researcher had assumed that American social workers would earn higher salaries. The educational level for Australian social workers

influenced this researcher to presume that they would receive lower salaries than American social workers. A large percentage (79.2%) of Australian social workers held Diploma, BA, and BSW degrees, while the majority of social workers in the United States had attained a post-graduate MSW degree (95.1%) (NASW 1987). The higher salaries for Australian social workers could be a result of the trade-union status of the AASW for so many years (Lawrence 1964, p. 181) or because the primary employer of social workers in Australia, the state, provides high salaries across a large percentage of the social workers (Boas and Crawley 1976, p. 33).

In considering the salary differences between the Australian and American social workers, it is important to recognize the time lapse between the American study in June, 1987 and the initiation of the data collection in Australia, more than a year later, in September, 1988. It is assumed that salaries for social workers in the United States increased during that time, but it is not possible to predict if they would be as high as the Australian mean annual salaries. It is interesting to note that the mean annual salary for Australians increased to $29,390 when only those social workers employed full-time are considered in the calculations. When American social workers employed part-time are excluded in future samples of the

NASW surveys, it will be fascinating to look at salary differences.

It is not known if the use of categorical midpoints for salary inflated or deflated actual salaries of Australian social workers. The same reliability was experienced with the NASW study (1987), as well, because of their use of salary midpoints.

Education

In comparing the mean annual salaries by educational degree, the findings of this study showed that the Australians earned higher salaries at the BSW, MSW, and DSW/PhD levels. The results were statistically significant for social workers at the BSW level only. Of special consideration is the fact that a BSW degree is held by 62.4% and the MSW degree by 10.3% of the Australian sample. Another 16.8% of the Australian sample held a diploma, BA or a BA with a diploma degree. In the NASW study (1987), 4.9% of the sample had a BSW degree and 90.9% had MSW degrees. The results of the salary comparisons by degree were not anticipated by the researcher, who had assumed that American social workers would earn higher salaries because they had substantially more people with post-graduate degrees. The researcher believed that with 95.1% of the American sample having an MSW or DSW/PhD degree, they would earn higher salaries.

It is interesting to note that MSW programs have only been readily available in Australia since the early 1970s (Boas and Crawley 1976, pp. 18-19), while the Americans have had MSW programs securely entrenched as the "minimum credential for professional status" since the 1940s (Richan 1988, p. 182). The BSW became accepted as an entry level social work degree in 1970 (Richan 1988, p. 182).

Like education, experience presumes that the acquisition of social work skills and salaries should increase with additional knowledge. With regard to salary and experience, there was a statistically significant difference between the two variables in the categories of under 2 years and 2 to 5 years in relation to experience of 16 to 20 years. This result was expected because salary generally increases with time on the job, increased skills, and promotions. The mean salary increased proportionately, as expected, for each experience category. The differences were greater, however, between those with under 2 and 2 to 5 years experience compared to those with 16 to 20 years of experience.

Practice

The results of this aspect of the study were indicative of the conception of social welfare in Australia and the United States and related to the health and welfare budgets for the provision of services. According to The

World in Figures, Australia spent 28% of its 1984/1985 budget on social security and welfare (1988, p. 274). Australia's concept of social welfare is generally residual in nature (Baldock and Cass 1988; Jones 1980), with institutional programs which include: child endowment, Medibank and Medicare health care schemes, family allowances, and the basic living wage (Jones 1980, p. 34). With this in mind, the study found that more than half of the Australian social workers were employed by the state governments. Historically, the states were the providers of health and welfare services and apparently have retained that responsibility (Mendelsohn 1979, p. 37). In America, only 17% of the social workers are employed by state governments. The substantial number of Australian social workers employed by the state could inflate wages and, conversely, decrease the worker's ability to function within the realm of social work values.

The most striking result found when examining employment settings was that more Australian social workers (41.5%) than American social workers (24.7%) worked in social service organizations. Fewer Australians worked in outpatient clinics than did the Americans.

The practice areas also showed differences between the Australian and American social workers. Australian social workers were more involved with Children and Youth, while the Americans practiced in the mental health area.

Medical and health care occupied social workers in both countries to nearly the same degree. Australia continues to provide services to those who are unable to care for themselves (children, youth, and the sick) and salvageable (Dickey 1980). The mental health practice has not been expanded to any appreciable degree and appears to be truly residual in nature. There may be less need for mental health services or the lack of any distinct social problems (Jones 1980, p. 289) or psychologists may provide the bulk of counseling in mental health.

Gender

The gender gap also exists in Australia. The results of the salary by gender t-test demonstrated that males earned a significantly ($p < .05$) higher salary than their female counterparts. One explanation for this finding could be that the males held a greater proportion of the advanced educational degrees than the females. The functions and experience of male and female social workers in Australia were roughly even.

The male social workers have a long history of getting paid more for the same jobs. According to Maddock and McLean, the female pay rate was 75% of the male salary through the early 1970s (1987, pp. 94-95). Male salary was reported to be 5% greater than the female salary by 1981 (Maddock and McLean 1987, p. 270). The mean salaries

for males in Australia is more than 5% greater than the female mean salary. The Australian salaries for males and females appear more equitable than those in the United States.

The even more startling finding was not that male social workers in the United States earned higher salaries than their female counterparts, but that they earned higher salaries than both groups of social workers in Australia as well.

Implications for Social Work

Australia

The Australian social workers and the AASW appear to be doing better than the researcher expected. They earned a mean annual salary which was higher than the American social workers, even though the American social workers held a substantially greater percentage (90.9%) of the advanced educational degrees. These results have caused this researcher to wonder why the Australians receive higher salaries when they hold fewer advanced degrees.

The fact that 54% of the Australian social workers are employed by the state government and 16.8% in other levels of government employ leads to the belief that the salaries for social workers are more standardized in Australia. It also brings to mind questions regarding autonomous functioning within the system. Are social work

values and ethics compromised or are they applied in practice within this system?

It is plausible that the AASW could begin collecting annual surveys of their members when members are renewing their membership. This would be beneficial for them in determining where to focus in supporting their members and protecting their members' rights.

Licensing or registration is an important issue facing the AASW. Some form of registration is absolutely necessary to provide some measure of control to ensure that the social workers providing services are qualified to provide those services. This leads to other questions. Who will determine what qualifications will be required for the provision of what level of services?

The results of this study relate to the population sampled in Australia. As the sample may not be totally representative of the social work profession in Australia, the results are not attributable to any other group or subgroup. Ife (1988) stated that those social workers who become members of the AASW are generally the more conservative members of the profession.

United States

It would seem reasonable for the NASW to continue to press for higher, equitable salaries for social workers in the United States. As fewer social workers were employed

by the government and 47.1% employed in the private/ nonprofit or private for profit sectors, standardized salaries may be more difficult, if not impossible, to achieve.

It is an absolute necessity that the government, NASW, and social workers in general explore ways to reduce the gender inequities which exist in the United States (and to a lesser degree in Australia). The American male social worker continues to earn a great deal more (31% more) than females in the United States, and considerably more than male and female social workers in Australia.

Findings in the employment function areas show that a greater percentage of Australian social workers are involved in supervision, policy development, consultation, and educational activities, while American social workers provide more direct service and serve in management/ administrative capacities. It is imperative that social workers in the United States exert more influence in the development and implementation of policies affecting clients and the general population.

International

With the computer age upon us, it would be more than possible for standardized data to be collected by social work associations on social workers across nations. This would be beneficial for all of the associations in

determining their status internationally and would help them to focus on what they could do to improve. The international field of social work now has the capability to organize and grow, as it did so many years in the many isolated countries.

International conferences of social work, international journals, and sharing of information from the many national social work associations and journals are methods for progressing the field of social work and the status of the profession. The sharing of strategies and techniques for dealing with a variety of problems was, after all, the beginning of the profession of social work.

Future Research

This study could be replicated in the remaining Australian states to ascertain the validity of this data at the national level.

This study could also be replicated in other countries to determine the standings of social workers in those countries and in comparison with the United States and Australia. Practice areas and agency auspices would be interesting to compare across different countries.

The results of this study remind this researcher that it would be important to examine the work conditions and limitations placed on the social worker by the employing agency, especially the state, in a paternalistic society.

This is important in the United States, too, because many of us are employed by private organizations which set their own policies regarding social work behavior.

Ethics and values should be explored to determine if a difference in values exists between Australian and American social workers. The educational systems utilize many of the same text books and resources for developing skills, assimilating the essence of social work values, and implementing those values in practice. As a result, there may be little difference between the Australian and American social workers value system, but it would be interesting to explore.

It may also be interesting to examine how social workers in Australia and American define social problems and needs and what approaches are taken to meet those perceived needs.

Appendices

Appendix A

NASW Annual Membership Questionnaire

ENJOY THE BENEFITS OF MEMBERSHIP

As a member of NASW, here's what you will receive:

- 2 memberships in one – membership at the National level and at your State Chapter level
- the lowest rate available for liability insurance for regular members
- 10 issues of *NASW NEWS* a year
- 6 *SOCIAL WORK* journals a year
- substantial discounts on NASW journals
- discounts on NASW sponsored national & state conferences
- a choice of moderately priced health, life and disability insurance
- a one year $7,500 Life Insurance Policy and a $50-a-day Hospital Indemnity Plan – at no cost to you through the NASW Insurance Trust
- group travel programs at significant savings
- application for NASW Silver Credit Card
- Legal Defense Service
- United Buying Service
- Application for Tax Deferred Annuity Plans

MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION CONTINUED

YOUR ANSWERS TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ARE ESSENTIAL IN HELPING US UNDERSTAND OUR MEMBERS' PROFESSIONAL NEEDS

INDICATE YOUR FUNCTION IN PRIMARY JOB AND, IF ANY, SECONDARY JOB

A Direct Service (e.g. Casework, Group Work, Clinical)
B Supervision
C Management/Administration
D Policy Development/Analysis
E Consultation
F Research
G Planning
H Education/Training
I No Social Work Function

INDICATE SETTING OF PRIMARY JOB AND, IF ANY, SECONDARY JOB

A Social Service Agency/Organization
B Private Practice – Self-Employed/Solo
C Private Practice – Partnership/Group
D Membership Organization
E Hospital
F Institution (Non-Hospital)
G Outpatient Facility (Clinic/Health or Mental Health Ctr.)
H Group Home/Residence
I Nursing Home/Hospice
J Court/Criminal Justice System
K College/University
L Elementary/Secondary School System
M Employment in Non-Social Service Organization (e.g. business/manufacturing, consulting/research firm, etc.)

INDICATE PRACTICE AREA OF PRIMARY JOB AND, IF ANY, SECONDARY JOB

A Children & Youth
B Community Organizing/Planning
C Family Services
D Corrections/Criminal Justice
E Group Services
F Medical/Health Care
G Mental Health
H Public Assistance/Welfare
I School Social Work
J Services to Aged
K Alcohol/Drug & Substance Abuse
L Developmental Disabilities/Mental Retardation
M Other Disabilities
N Unemployed
O Other (specify) _____

INDICATE THE FIRST AND SECOND PRACTICE COMMISSION WITH WHICH YOU IDENTIFY*

A Health/Mental Health Commission (e.g. Medical/Health Care, Mental Health, Disabilities, etc.)
B Family and Primary Relationships Commission (e.g. Children and Youth, Family Services, Services to the Aged, etc.)
C Education Commission (e.g. Social Work in Schools, Colleges, etc.)
D Employment/Economic Support Commission (e.g. Occupational Social Work, Assistance/Public Welfare, etc.)
E Justice Commission (e.g. Corrections, Criminal Justice, etc.)

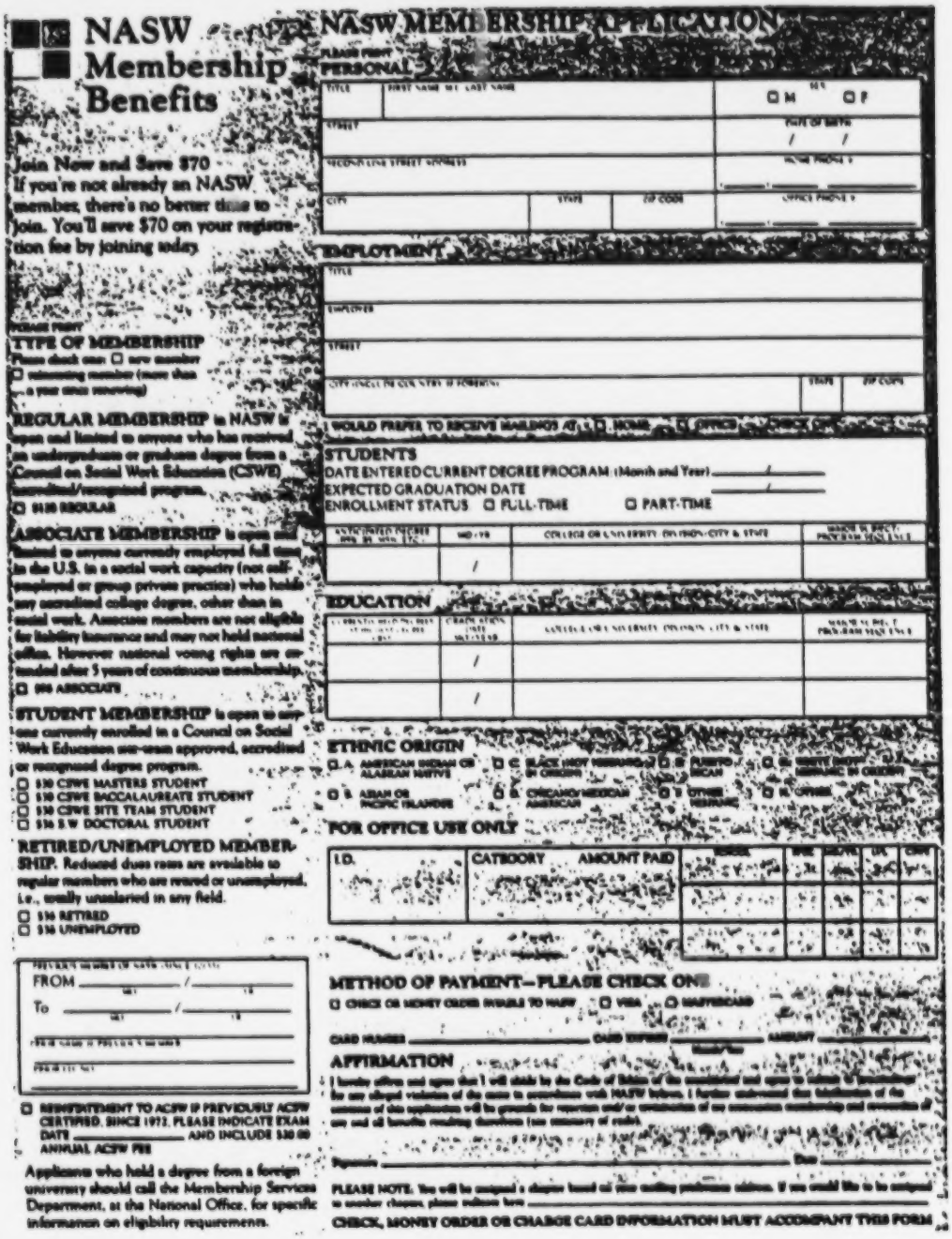
INDICATE AUSPICE OF YOUR PRIMARY JOB AND, IF ANY, SECONDARY JOB

A Public Service – Local
B Public Service – State
C Public Service – Federal
D Public Service – Military
E Private and Nonprofit – Sectarian
F Private and Nonprofit – Non-Sectarian
G Private for Profit Proprietary

INDICATE CURRENT ANNUAL SALARY (OR SELF-EMPLOYED INCOME) FROM PRIMARY EMPLOYMENT ONLY

☐ A UNDER $10 000 ☐ D $15 000-17 499 ☐ G $25 000-29 999 ☐ J $40 000-49 999 ☐ M $70 000 & OVER
☐ B $10 000-12 499 ☐ E $17 500-19 999 ☐ H $30 000-34 999 ☐ K $50 000-59 999
☐ C $12 500-14 999 ☐ F $20 000-24 999 ☐ I $35 000-39 999 ☐ L $60 000-69 999

BEST COPY AVAILABLE



NASW Membership Benefits

Join Now and Save $70
If you're not already an NASW member, there's no better time to join. You'll save $70 on your registration fee by joining today.

PLEASE PRINT

TYPE OF MEMBERSHIP
Please check one: ☐ new member ☐ reinstating member (more than ... a year since resigning)

REGULAR MEMBERSHIP in NASW is open and limited to anyone who has received an undergraduate or graduate degree from a Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) accredited/recognized program.
☐ $120 REGULAR

ASSOCIATE MEMBERSHIP is open and limited to anyone currently employed full time in the U.S. in a social work capacity (not self-employed or group private practice) who holds any accredited college degree, other than in social work. Associate members are not eligible for liability insurance and may not hold national office. However national voting rights are extended after 5 years of continuous membership.
☐ $90 ASSOCIATE

STUDENT MEMBERSHIP is open to anyone currently enrolled in a Council on Social Work Education one-year approved, accredited or recognized degree program.
☐ $30 CSWE MASTERS STUDENT
☐ $30 CSWE BACCALAUREATE STUDENT
☐ $30 CSWE SITE TEAM STUDENT
☐ $36 S W DOCTORAL STUDENT

RETIRED/UNEMPLOYED MEMBERSHIP. Reduced dues rates are available to regular members who are retired or unemployed, i.e., usually unsalaried in any field.
☐ $36 RETIRED
☐ $36 UNEMPLOYED

FROM ____ / ____
To ____ / ____

☐ REINSTATEMENT TO ACSW IF PREVIOUSLY ACSW CERTIFIED. SINCE 1972. PLEASE INDICATE EXAM DATE _____ AND INCLUDE $30.00 ANNUAL ACSW FEE

Applicants who hold a degree from a foreign university should call the Membership Services Department, at the National Office, for specific information on eligibility requirements.

NASW MEMBERSHIP APPLICATION

PLEASE PRINT

PERSONAL

TITLE | FIRST NAME MI LAST NAME | ☐ M ☐ F
STREET | DATE OF BIRTH / /
RESIDENCE STREET ADDRESS | HOME PHONE ( )
CITY | STATE | ZIP CODE | OFFICE PHONE ( )

EMPLOYMENT

TITLE
EMPLOYER
STREET
CITY (MAILING OR CONSTRUCTION ADDRESS) | STATE | ZIP CODE

I WOULD PREFER TO RECEIVE MAILINGS AT: ☐ HOME ☐ OFFICE (CHECK ONE)

STUDENTS
DATE ENTERED CURRENT DEGREE PROGRAM (Month and Year) ____ / ____
EXPECTED GRADUATION DATE ____ / ____
ENROLLMENT STATUS ☐ FULL-TIME ☐ PART-TIME

DEGREE(S) RECEIVED AND TO BE RECEIVED	MO / YR	COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY (INCLUDE CITY & STATE)	MAJOR IN SOCIAL WORK PROGRAM (IF ANY)
	/		

EDUCATION

	/		
	/		

ETHNIC ORIGIN
☐ A. AMERICAN INDIAN OR ALASKAN NATIVE ☐ B. ASIAN OR PACIFIC ISLANDER ☐ C. BLACK (NOT HISPANIC IN ORIGIN) ☐ D. CHICANO/MEXICAN AMERICAN ☐ E. PUERTO RICAN ☐ F. OTHER HISPANIC ☐ G. WHITE (NOT HISPANIC IN ORIGIN) ☐ H. OTHER

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY

I.D.	CATEGORY	AMOUNT PAID	CHECK	CASH	VISA	MC	OTHER

METHOD OF PAYMENT—PLEASE CHECK ONE
☐ CHECK OR MONEY ORDER PAYABLE TO NASW ☐ VISA ☐ MASTERCARD
CARD NUMBER _____ CARD EXPIRES _____ (Month/Year) AMOUNT _____

AFFIRMATION
I hereby affirm and agree that I will abide by the Code of Ethics of the association and agree to submit to jurisdiction for any alleged violations of the same in accordance with NASW bylaws. I further understand that falsification of the contents of this application will be grounds for rejection and/or termination of my association membership and revocation of any and all benefits resulting therefrom (see statement of credit).

Signature _____ Date _____

PLEASE NOTE: You will be assigned a chapter based on your mailing preference address. If you would like to be assigned to another chapter, please indicate here _____

CHECK, MONEY ORDER OR CHARGE CARD INFORMATION MUST ACCOMPANY THIS FORM

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Appendix B

Occupation and Salary Questionnaire

OCCUPATION AND SALARY QUESTIONNAIRE*

1. What is your age range? (Circle one number below.)
   1. 29 years & under
   2. 30-39 years
   3. 40-49 years
   4. 50-59 years
   5. 60-69 years
   6. 70 years & over

2. What is your sex? (Circle appropriate number.)
   1. Male
   2. Female

3. What is your ethnic origin?
   1. Australian
   2. Australian Aboriginal
   3. African
      30. South Africa
      35. Other Africa
   4. Asian (please list.) _____
   5. Middle Eastern (please list.) _____
   6. Mediterranean
   7. European (inc. Britain)
   8. Non-European (Canada, USA)
   9. Oceania
      90. New Zealand
      95. Other (please list.) _____

4. Where do you live? (Circle number.)
   1. Major urban area
   2. Smaller urban area List state or territory_____
   3. Rural area

5. What is your educational background? (Please list.)

Degree(s) held (BA,BSW, Diploma, MA, MSW, PhD, DSW)	Graduation date (year/month)	College/University (City, State, Country)	Major Subject Sequence
_____	____/____	_____	_____
_____	____/____	_____	_____

6. Indicate your **function** in primary position of employment and, if any, that of your second job: (place letter of function in boxes on the right.)
   A. Direct Service (e.g. Casework: Group Work: Clinical)
   B. Supervision
   C. Management/Administration
   D. Policy Development/Analysis
   E. Consultant
   F. Research
   G. Planning
   H. Education/Training
   I. No Social Work Function

Primary	Second

7. Indicate the **agency** of your primary position and, if any, that of your second job.
   A. Public Service-Local
   B. Public Service-State
   C. Public Service-Federal
   D. Public Service-Military
   E. Private/Nonprofit-Sectarian
   F. Private/Nonprofit-Non-Sectarian
   G. Private for Profit: Proprietary

Primary	Second

* Questions were taken from the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS membership application which is completed initially by all members and voluntarily with membership renewal each year.

8. Indicate the **setting** of primary position and, if any, that of your second job.

A. Social Service Agency/Organization
B. Hospital
C. Institution (Non-Hospital)
D. Outpatient Facility: Clinic/Health or Mental Health Center
E. Group Home/Residence
F. Nursing Home/Hospice
G. Court/Criminal Justice System
H. College/University
I. Elementary/Secondary Schools
J. Private Practice-Self-Employed/Solo
K. Private Practice-Partnership/Group
L. Membership Organization
M. Employment in Non-Social Service Organization (Business/Trade, Consulting/Research Firm)

Primary	Second

9. Indicate **practice area** of primary position and, if any, that of your second job.

A. Children and Family
B. Community Organization/Planning
C. Family Services
D. Corrections/Criminal Justice
E. Group Services
F. Medical/Health Care
G. Mental Health
H. Public Assistance/Welfare
I. School Social Work
J. Services to the Aged
K. Alcohol/Drug and Substance Abuse
L. Developmental Disabilities/Mental Retardation
M. Other Disabilities
N. Occupational
O. Other (specify) _____

Primary	Second

10. Indicate **current salary per annum**, in Australian dollars, before taxes, from your primary employment **only**: (please circle letter.)

A.	Under A$10,000	E.	A$20,000-24,999	I.	A$50,000-59,999
B.	A$10,000-14,999	F.	A$25,000-29,999	J.	A$60,000-69,999
C.	A$15,000-17,499	G.	A$30,000-39,999	K.	A$70,000-79,999
D.	A$17,500-19,999	H.	A$40,000-49,999	L.	A$80,000 & over

Is the salary indicated above for:
1. ____ Full time (35 or more hours per week)
2. ____ Part time (less than 35 hours weekly)

11. Per annum income from your second job, if any (indicate amount):
A$_____

12. Indicate total years of social work experience since **first** social work degree (please circle):

A.	Under 2 years	E.	16-20 years
B.	2-5 years	F.	21-25 years
C.	6-10 years	G.	Over 25 years
D.	11-15 years		

Appendix C

Cover Letter: Elizabeth T. Ortiz

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, LONG BEACH

Elizabeth T. Ortiz, DSW
Associate Professor
Department of Social Work

July 20, 1988

Dear Colleague,

This is to introduce Ms. Nancy West, who is a student in the Masters of Social Work program at this university. She is working on her Masters thesis under my supervision and committee approval.

Her thesis is entitled "A Descriptive and Comparative Study of Qualifications and Salaries of Australian and American Social Workers." The data for the American social workers in this study has been collected by our national professional organization, the National Association of Social Workers (NASW), and published in Salaries in Social Work (NASW, 1987).

Ms. West plans to conduct a voluntary mail survey of members of the Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW) using a modified version of the NASW membership questionnaire.

I hope you will be able to cooperate with Ms. West in this important international study of the status of social work as a profession.

If there are any questions, please contact me here at the University or give me a call at 213/985-4615.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Elizabeth T. Ortiz, DSW
Associate Professor

1250 Bellflower Boulevard, Long Beach, California 90840

Appendix D

Cover Letters: Researcher

Nancy West

Dear Fellow Social Worker,

Please allow me to introduce myself. Currently, I am working in the the social work field and completing the requirements for the Masters of Social Work (MSW) degree at California State University Long Beach. I am working on a thesis under the direction of Professor Elizabeth Ortiz, D.S.W.

As the topic for my thesis, entitled "A Descriptive and Comparative Study of Professional Social Workers in Australia and America", I am interested in comparing members of the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) with those of Australia's social work organization, the Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW).

In America, the NASW conducts an annual voluntary mail survey of its members which I have adapted to compare Australian social workers on the same variables. The areas for exploration include: salaries, primary job functions and, if applicable, those of a second job or other employment, educational attainment, types of organizations in which social workers are employed and any differences which may exist between male and female social workers. Please see enclosed questions taken from the NASW membership application.

Completion of the questionnaire is <u>entirely voluntary</u>. Identifying information about yourself or specific client-related information is not being requested. With your assistance in the completion and return of this questionnaire in the Freepost envelope (no postage required), I will assume you consent and agree to have that information included in this study.

This study has been made possible with the kind assistance of AASW in both Canberra and Perth. Special thanks to Jave Cook in Canberra, and Joe Calleja and Maria Harries in Perth for their suggestions and support. Results of the study will be made available to the AASW in Canberra and Perth upon completion of my thesis (May 1989).

Thank you in advance for your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Nancy West

Nancy West

November 26, 1988

Dear Fellow Social Worker,

Please allow me to introduce myself. I am a social worker completing the requirements for the Masters of Social Work (MSW) degree at California State University Long Beach. I am working under the direction of Professor Elizabeth Ortiz, D.S.W.

As the topic for my thesis, entitled "A Descriptive and Comparative Study of Professional Social Workers in Australia and America", I am interested in comparing members of the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) with those of Australia's social work organization, the Australian Association of Social Workers (AASW).

In America, the NASW conducts an annual voluntary mail survey of its members which I have used to compare Australian social workers on the same variables. The areas for exploration include: salaries, job functions in primary job and in a second job (if applicable), educational attainment, types of organizations for which you work and any differences which may exist between male and female social workers.

Completion of the questionnaire is **entirely voluntary**. There is NO specific client-related information requested. With your assistance in the completion and return of this questionnaire in the Freepost envelope (no postage required), I will assume that you consent and agree to have your responses included in this study.

This study has been made possible with the kind assistance of AASW in both Canberra and Victoria. Special thanks to Jaye Cook in Canberra and Helen Murray and Glad Hawkins in Victoria. Results of the study will be made available to the AASW in Canberra and Victoria upon completion and approval of my thesis (May 1989).

My return address in Australia is: Freepost #2 Fremantle, Nancy West, 28 Fortescue Street, E. Fremantle, W.A. 6158. My U.S. address is shown above.

Thank you in advance for your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Nancy West

Appendix E

Letter of Support: AASW-West
Australian Branch

Australian Association of Social Workers
(Western Australian Branch Inc)
P.O. Box 198, West Perth W.A. 6005

25 August 1988

Dear Colleagues

The Committee of Management has agreed to assist Nancy West, an American Masters student, with the collection of data for her thesis. The attached information explains the topic and the request in detail.

I would be grateful if you could assist Nancy by completing the attached brief questionnaire, and returning it in the post-free envelope.

With Thanks.

Yours sincerely

Joe.

Joe Calleja
PRESIDENT

Encs

Appendix F

Letter of Support: AASW-Victorian Branch

Australian Association of Social Workers Ltd.
Victorian Branch
P.O. BOX 1059, RICHMOND NORTH VICTORIA 3121 TEL. (03) 670 1156

17th November 1988.

Dear Colleague,

The Victorian Branch Council has agreed to assist Ms. Nancy West, an American Masters student, with the collection of data for her thesis. The attached information explains the topic and the request in detail.

We would be grateful if you could assist Ms. West by completing the attached brief questionnaire, and returning it in the post-free envelope.

Thank you for your help.

Yours sincerely,

pp Helen Murray

Helen Murray,
Branch President.

Encl.

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